

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 087 681

SO 006 983

AUTHOR

Naylor, David T.

TITLE

Can "The New Social Studies" Survive in the Public Schools?: A Case Study of the Perceptions of Significant School Related Groups Regarding Nationalistic Instruction.

PUB DATE

73

NOTE

37p.; A paper presented at the National Council for the Social Studies, College and University Session (November 1973)

EDRS PRICE
DESCRIPTORS

MF-\$0.65 HC-\$3.29

Administrator Attitudes; Boards of Education; *Democratic Values; Dissent; *Educational Change; Educational Research; Freedom of Speech; Inquiry Training; *Nationalism; Parent Attitudes; *Political Attitudes; Public Schools; Questioning Techniques; Questionnaires; *Social Studies; Speeches; Statistical Analysis; Teacher Attitudes

ABSTRACT

A review and discussion of the new social studies introduces the problem of whether nationalism and patriotism are "closed areas" or if an open examination of these areas is possible in the public schools. Two sets of hypotheses, one dealing with public school educators and the other with school-related groups, were tested by administration of a situational questionnaire in a New Jersey, K-12 suburban school district. Data from the study are presented in tabular form and analyzed. The major hypothesis, that there would be a significant difference in the perceptions of public school educators between what would occur and what should occur in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction, was confirmed. Analysis reveals that the teachers, though not administrators, perceived the school as being less open or tolerant than it should be. The discussion section notes that the disparity between responses would and should indicate that the public school is not particularly hospitable to open inquiry in areas of nationalism and patriotism. It is concluded that if the new social studies is unable to engage in open, critical inquiry in areas fundamental to social studies education, then the prevalence of the traditional, nationalistic instruction will remain. References and an appendix of sample questionnaire items conclude the paper. (Author/KSM)

ED 087681

Sp 006 983

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO-
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN-
ATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT
OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

CAN "THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES" SURVIVE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS?:

A CASE STUDY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF SIGNIFICANT SCHOOL-
RELATED GROUPS REGARDING NATIONALISTIC INSTRUCTION.

A PAPER PRESENTED AT THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY SESSION, NOVEMBER, 1973

BY DAVID T. NAYLOR

CRAINFORD SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, CRAINFORD, NEW JERSEY

CAN "THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES" SURVIVE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS?:
A CASE STUDY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF SIGNIFICANT SCHOOL-
RELATED GROUPS REGARDING NATIONALISTIC INSTRUCTION

Beginning in the mid-1950's, a large number of national social studies curriculum projects were initiated under funding principally by the United States government and private foundations. Serving as a catalyst, these projects stimulated a reexamination of philosophies, goals, methods and materials governing both the role and the nature of the social studies, the product of which has been termed "the new social studies."

A number of trends comprise "the new social studies," an expression resistant to any single, precise definition and more properly regarded as an umbrella term embracing a wide range of theories, goals, methods and materials within the following dimensions.

One of the principal characteristics of "the new social studies" is an increasing recognition of the importance of social science disciplines other than history and geography and a trend toward inter-disciplinary approaches utilizing the concepts and methodology of these social science disciplines. Another prominent characteristic is an emphasis on the "structure" of a discipline, the mastering of basic organizing principles said to be inherent in every natural and social science which form the basis for all knowledge.

Also discernible is a shift away from the traditional deductive, expository approach to a more inductive, "discovery" approach. Rejecting the traditional concept of fact accumulation in favor of the cultivation of inquiry skills, "the new social studies" seeks to transform the student from a passive into an active seeker of knowledge, placing strong emphasis on the cultivation of critical thinking skills. The student is encouraged to reach his own conclusions and make his own value judgments either within cognitively oriented curriculums such as that of Edwin Fenton or affectively oriented curriculums such as that proposed by Lawrence Metcalf, often calling for a value-free approach.

Closely related is an emphasis upon relevant, real-life experiences, exposing students to meaningful contemporary social conflicts in which value conflicts are readily present. In "the new social studies," the single authoritative textbook is discouraged and replaced by a wide variety of source materials featuring a broad spectrum of philosophies.

Many of these projects have produced materials which are presently, or will soon become, available from commercial publishers for use in public elementary and secondary school classrooms. As noted in a study based on field experiences and interviews with sixteen leading curriculum developers published in the Social Science Consortium Newsletter in May, 1971, "as the '60's drew to a close, social studies was moving in significant new directions." (Radz and Risinger, 1971, p. 2)

It is, however, in the 1970's, as these materials become

will be felt in this country's public schools. But successful implementation of many of these approaches and materials is fraught with problems. In the transition from curriculum design and limited field testing to the realities of mass public school education some of the assumptions and goals of "the new social studies" may not survive. Professional literature has appeared setting forth such a concern, much of it expressing doubts as to whether public school teachers have the knowledge and/or skills to use "the new social studies" effectively. Yet, perhaps more importantly, concern should center on whether public school teachers are capable of implementing "the new social studies" given the nature of the institution in which they operate.

"The new social studies" present a dilemma to the social studies teacher. That dilemma, concisely described by Dale Brubaker in *Alternative Directions for the Social Studies* (1967), finds the social studies teacher in a situation where the tradition of nationalistic instruction in the public schools seemingly contradicts the premises on which much of "the new social studies" is based.

One of the major concerns of public education has long been that of citizenship. As Morris Lewenstein noted:

The claim that the primary purpose of our free public education in the United States is the development of good citizens is probably one of the most frequent assertions in all educational literature. (Lewenstein, 1953, p. 7).

The social studies came to be regarded as that area of the curriculum best suited to provide proper citizenship training,

an integral part of which was to instill the "proper" love and respect for the country.

Although, particularly within the past decade, considerable debate has developed with regard to the nature and relationship of citizenship education to social studies education, and despite its somewhat nebulous character, citizenship education continues to be regarded as one of the principal concerns of the field, particularly by those involved with the public schools.

Frequently citizenship education is narrowly perceived as a means of imparting the "right" values, of developing a strong, oftentimes unquestioning allegiance to the nation. Such a conception of citizenship education should, however, be more properly regarded as nationalistic instruction, for nationalistic instruction, that instruction designed to instill love and respect for one's country, consists both of the encouragement and cultivation of certain ideas, attitudes and practices considered supportive or pro-national, and the discouragement and prohibition of certain ideas, attitudes and practices considered non-supportive or contra-national. Such instruction is concerned with studying national history in a sympathetic or "patriotic" manner, respecting national symbols, celebrating special events and heroes, singing special songs, reading special addresses, and developing an adherence to certain chosen principles.

Fostering closed as opposed to open induction, nationalistic instruction emphasizes the importance of pre-determined

outcomes. As Jack L. Nelson observed:

The result of a tradition of nationalistic education which emphasizes controlled textbooks, curricula and teachers is a cult of nationalism without inquiry -- indoctrination to pro-nationalism and against anything viewed by powerful pressure groups as contra-national. (Nelson, 1969, p. 14).

Nationalistic instruction lacks an inquiry orientation. It does not permit the student to seek truth but rather permits him to "discover" that distinct subject matter considered most appropriate for good citizenship.

A number of studies attest to the prevalence of such instruction in the public schools, principally in the social studies curriculum. Investigations of state legislative control of the curriculum such as those by Flanders (1925), Pierce (1926), Beale (1936), Brudney (1941), Lehman (1955), Plischke (1953), Nelson (1968) and Sadler (1968) clearly point to the extent to which legislatures have sought to indoctrinate with requirements for specific courses to be taught, specific topics to be discussed, and even specific outcomes to be attained.

In 1961, for example, the Florida state legislature required all public high schools in the state to place more emphasis on the danger of communism to the American way of life and required a course of not less than thirty hours entitled "Americanism versus Communism" in all public high schools in the state. The law provided:

The course shall be one of orientation in comparative governments and shall emphasize the free-enterprise-competitive economy of the United States as the one which produces higher

wages, higher standards of living, greater personal freedom and liberty than any other system of economics on earth....

The course shall lay particular emphasis upon the dangers of communism, the ways to fight communism, the evils of communism, the fallacies of communism, and the false doctrines of communism.

...No teacher or textual material assigned to this course shall present communism as preferable to the system of...the United States. (Florida Statutes, Section 230.23(4),(1) in Nelson, 1968, pp. 121-22.)

In 1969, Henry W. Bragdon, author of one of the most widely used American history textbooks in American schools for over a generation, wrote:

Back of the idea that timid publishers are constantly telling writers "you can't print that," is the notion that pressure groups, especially those of self-dubbed "patriots," will drive from the market any books that aren't a bland, homogenized mixture of pap and uplift. There is substance to this notion." (Bragdon, 1969, p. 294.)

Bragdon has also written, "I feel that there is a mandate to a textbook writer to attempt to instill a sense of commitment to this country...." (*Ibid.*, p. 298.) The ubiquity of this belief is attested to in numerous analyses of social studies textbooks, including those by Pierce (1930), Beale (1936), Krug (1960), Noah, Prince and Riggs (1962), Nelson and Roberts (1963), England (1963), Massialas (in Cox and Massialas, 1967), and Billington (1966). These analyses provide strong evidence of the decidedly pro-national content of textbooks used in the public schools.

Works, such as those of Pierce (1926) and Beale (1941), dealing with restrictions on and actions taken against public

school educators further attest to the attempts to insure pro-national orthodoxy. Loyalty oaths, fines, imprisonment and/or revocation of license for failure to carry out legislative mandates are profuse in the history of the American schools.

In 1921, the state of South Dakota legislated that:

Any teacher who shall have publicly reviled, ridiculed or otherwise spoken or acted with disrespect and contumacy towards the flag of the United States or its official uniforms or insignia, or towards the system of government of the United States, and its Constitution, or shall refuse to take and subscribe to the oath of allegiance hereinbefore required shall thereafter forever be disqualified to teach in any public or private school within this state. (Laws of South Dakota, 1921, Chapter 210 in Pierce, 1926, p. 90.)

It was also in 1921 that the Oklahoma state legislature passed a similar law but adding that the educator could be fined from one to five hundred dollars and imprisoned from sixty days to six months. (Acts of Oklahoma, 1921, ch. III, in ibid., p. 94.) And, it was not until April, 1973, that the United States Supreme Court by sanctioning a lower court ruling barred public school officials from discharging a teacher who refuses to recite the Pledge of Allegiance to the flag with pupils in his homeroom. (Central School District v. Russo in The New York Times, 1973, p. 28.)

The efforts and impact of pressure groups to insure "proper" nationalistic instruction in the public schools has been substantial and is well documented. Studies by Pierce (1933), Beale, 1936, 1941), Raup (1936), Gellerman (1938), and Nelson and Roberts (1963) attest to the strength of these efforts. As Jack L. Nelson commented:

Patriotic organizations have a long tradition in America and have been remarkably effective in influencing what is taught in American schools about national and contra-national ideas. (Nelson, 1969, p. 10.)

Thus, in the area of nationalism at least, American schools have historically functioned as reflective agents. In virtually every area of the social studies curriculum dealing with citizenship education -- courses offered, textbooks used, topics considered -- the prevalence and strength of nationalistic instruction is in evidence.

But, such an approach to citizenship education is not universally accepted. Some, including Beale (1936, pp. 55-57.), Horton (1963, pp. 56-57.), Smith and Patrick (1967, p. 116.), Hess and Torney (1968, pp. 120-32; 242-51.), Jennings and Niemi (1968, pp. 177-78.), and Cleary (1971, pp. 98-107.), have suggested that the outcomes of nationalistic instruction may not be effective but defective citizenship leading to ethnocentrism, apathy, political naivete, cynicism, excessive conformity and authoritarianism.

What is called for is a different conception of citizenship education, a more vigilant, inquiring, dynamic type of citizenship education quite apart from the conception inherent in nationalistic instruction. In the former there are no closed areas to inhibit inquiry, no pre-digested truths to regurgitate on signal. As Nelson has written:

...any ideas, interpretations, and concepts are open to inquiry in a rational and forthright manner. This would not exclude education about heroic events and individuals nor agreement on the nature, intents and

identification of national enemies. It does not, however, mandate or imply that decisions in these areas are made for and taught to students. Instead, students would be considered free, with dignity and rights, capable of contributing to and dealing with social change. The role of schools in this form of nationalistic education would be to provide students with analytic and synthesizing tools with which data, attitudes, and other types of evidence can be weighed. (Nelson, 1969, p. 4.)

As attested to by Engle (1964, pp. 28-31.), Massialas and Cox (1966), Oliver and Shaver (1966), Smith and Patrick (1967, pp. 105-27.), and Hunt and Metcalf (1968), it is this kind of citizenship education which is very much a part of "the new social studies."

The Problem

The problem for the social studies teacher is thus both theoretical and practical -- theoretical as to the character of nationalistic education and practical as to the nature of instruction the school will permit. Are nationalism and patriotism "closed areas" or is an open examination of those areas possible in the public schools?

The crucial factor seems to be the public school teachers themselves. Despite the existence of many influences which come to bear upon them -- government, community, boards of education, administrators, colleges and universities, curriculum designers, textbook authors and textbook publishers, professional associations, etc. -- the teacher is the one who is entrusted with the responsibility of implementation in the classroom, the only one to directly implement the

social studies curriculum. He may be guided, directed, and in other ways affected by these factors but ultimately it will be his reaction to these influences that will determine how effectively he will implement and affect social studies education.

Do public school teachers perceive the school as receptive to open inquiry in areas involving nationalistic instruction? Do they feel the school should be more receptive to such inquiry than it is at present? These are crucial questions; they serve as the basis of this investigation.

Teachers must make judgments about both the nature of the school and the nature of the curriculum. While there is a significant body of literature with respect to legislation, school regulations, textbooks, pressure groups, and teacher restrictions, relatively little exists with respect to how public school teachers perceive the school with regard to nationalistic instruction. Harmon Zeigler's observation, "We know something about what students think ought to happen in class, but very little about what teachers think should happen," (Zeigler, 1969, p. 95.) is particularly applicable to nationalistic instruction.

How do elementary school teachers and secondary school teachers perceive the school responding to efforts which may run contrary to traditionally held nationalistic views? How do they feel the school should respond? How realistic are the perceptions of elementary and secondary school teachers?

Do administrators, students, parents and members of the board of education perceive the school in a like manner? Do the school officials, or the community, or the students, or the teachers themselves pose obstacles to open inquiry in nationalistic education? It is this area which has not been adequately researched and it is this area which may ultimately determine the fate of much of "the new social studies" in the public schools.

Hypotheses

Both Beale (1941, pp. 237-44.) and Zeigler (1969, 93-143.) have advised that educators hold views or positions apart from the views or positions held by the school and are inhibited in their expression of such views. Studies dealing with the school and the treatment of controversial issues such as those of Lunstrum (1964, pp. 178-86) and McAulay (1969, 326-30) have pointed to teacher reluctance to deal with controversy. Greenstein (1969, pp. 31-35.), Hess and Torney (1968, pp. 120-32; 242), Easton and Dennis (1969, pp. 273-85) and Cleary (1971, 129-39) have suggested that the elementary school is particularly prone to nationalistic instruction. Spindler's speculations about the personal characteristics of educators (1963, pp. 132-47) and Waller's observations with respect to the institutional characteristics of schools (1967, pp. 375-416) further confirm and suggest reasons for the existence of a lack of openness in the school environment.

In addition to this literature, a recently published study completed by the author specifically dealing with the perceptions of public school educators with respect to nationalistic instruction and the public schools lends support to these observations. (Naylor, 1973). Thus, on the basis of the literature previously cited, the author's own published research and his ten years of experience as a teacher in the public schools, the following set of hypotheses were formed.

Hypotheses I: Public School Educators

Hypothesis I-A: Public school educators will perceive that the school would act in a significantly less tolerant manner than they perceive the school should act in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction.

Hypothesis I-B: Administrators and secondary school teachers (9-12) will perceive the school would act in a significantly more tolerant manner than will elementary school teachers (K-6) in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction. Secondary school teachers will perceive the school should act in a significantly more tolerant way than either administrators or elementary school teachers in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction.

Hypothesis I-C: Public school educators with less than ten years of experience will perceive the school would act in a significantly less tolerant manner but should act in a significantly more tolerant way than educators with more than ten years of experience in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction.

Hypothesis I-D: The greater the age of the public school educator (i.e., 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, over 49), the more open or tolerant his perception will be of how the school would act in these situations and the less tolerant or open his perceptions will be of how the school should act in these situations. Educators

forty years old or more will perceive the school would act in a significantly more tolerant manner and that the school should act in a significantly less tolerant manner in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction than educators less than thirty years of age. Educators between thirty and thirty-nine years of age will not differ significantly from either of these two age groups, either in their perceptions of what the school would do or what the school should do in these situations.

Hypothesis I-E: Public school educators with tenure will perceive the school would act in a significantly more tolerant way than will public school educators who do not have tenure. No significant differences will exist between tenured educators and non-tenured educators in their perceptions of what the school should do in these situations.

Hypothesis I-F: Public school educators who have attained only a Bachelor's Degree will perceive the school would act in a significantly less tolerant manner but should act in a more tolerant way in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction than public school educators who have attained a Master's Degree plus thirty credit hours. Educators who have attained only a Master's Degree will not differ significantly in their perceptions from either of the two other groups.

The second set of hypotheses involve all of the significant groups in the school district -- teachers, administrators, students, parents and members of the board of education. The works of Pierce (1926; 1933), Beale (1936; 1941), Sinclair (1924), Nelson and Roberts (1963), Weiser and Hayes (1966) and Zeigler (1969) were of value in the formation of these hypotheses. Of particular value was the work of anthropologist George Spindler. Having suggested that attacks on the public schools are symptomatic of an American culture undergoing transformation, Spindler contended that such conflict is at heart a value conflict between a traditional value system and an emergent value

system. In developing this thesis, Spindler proposed a model using a continuum line to convey:

...the information that different groups operating in the context of relations between school and community, educator and public, occupy different positions on the value continuum, with varying degrees and mixtures of traditional and emergent orientations. (Spindler, 1963, p. 139)

Assignment on the continuum line is largely dependent upon three factors: status, role and environment. (Spindler, 1963, 132-47)

Hypotheses II: All School-Related Groups

Hypothesis II-A: Both teachers (elementary and secondary) and students will perceive the school would act in a significantly less tolerant manner but should act in a significantly more tolerant manner in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction than parents or members of the board of education.

Hypothesis II-B: Administrators will perceive the school would act in a significantly more tolerant way in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction than students or teachers but will not differ significantly from them in their perceptions of what the school should do in these situations. Administrators will not differ significantly in their perceptions of what the school would or should do in these situations from parents or members of the board of education.

Hypothesis II-C: Students will perceive the school would act in a significantly less tolerant manner in these situations than teachers. Neither group will differ significantly in their perceptions of what the school should do in these situations.

Hypothesis II-D: The greater the age of the respondent (i.e., less than 20; 20 to 29; 30 to 39; 40 to 49; over 49), the more tolerant his perception will be of how the school would act in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction and the less tolerant or open his perceptions of how the school should act in these situations. Respondents forty years old or more will perceive the school would act in a significantly more tolerant manner and that the school should act in

a significantly less tolerant manner in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction than respondents less than thirty years of age. Respondents between thirty and thirty-nine years of age will not differ significantly from other age groups either in their perceptions of what the school would or should do in these situations.

The Instrument

A situational questionnaire was developed with the intent of ascertaining the perceptions of public school educators and significant school-related groups in situations having nationalistic bias related to the public schools. Derived from an extensive literature survey, the questionnaire contained nineteen situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction and the public schools.

The questionnaire was first pre-tested with a selected group of graduate students at the Rutgers University Graduate School of Education, revised, and then administered in a pilot study involving 258 randomly selected teachers and administrators in four New Jersey suburban school districts. Each school district included grades K-12 under an elected board of education and was situated within a fifty-mile radius of New York city. An analysis of the pilot study data confirmed the usefulness of the situational questionnaire (See Naylor, 1973) and led to its present form following a few minor revisions.

For each of the nineteen situations contained in the questionnaire, two responses are requested. Each respondent is asked first to indicate what he perceives would occur in

his school district and then what he perceives would occur in each of the nineteen situations. On a five-point skewed scale -- i.e., no zero point -- responses range in identifiable behavior from that which can be considered less tolerant or closed to that which can be considered more tolerant or open. Hence, an overall score of nineteen represents an extremely intolerant or closed position whereas a score of ninety-five represents an extremely tolerant or open position. (See Appendix) The data were analyzed with a series of analysis of variance tests. When a significant F ratio at the .05 level was found, Scheffe's post hoc test for significant contrasts was employed.

The Procedure

A pilot study revealed significant differences for several variables, including position in the district, length of experience in education, tenure, and highest degree held. No significant differences, however, appeared on the basis of school district. Hence, despite the inclusion of public school educators from four independent school districts, each with their own policy making bodies, no significant differences appeared in the perceptions of job-alike public school educators either in terms of how they felt their own school district would respond or should respond in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction.

Teachers and administrators obviously do not have absolute control of the public schools. Other groups play important roles in influencing what occurs in the public schools. Thus, encouraged by the pilot study data

and aware of the significant roles played by members of the board of education, parents and students, it was decided to conduct an in-depth study within one New Jersey, K-12 suburban school district.

An in-depth case study approach requires identification of a school district for study and the securing of the district's cooperation. The following criteria were established to determine which districts would be contacted: (1) self-contained K-12 school system under a single board of education; (2) suburban community with a population ranging between 10,000 to 40,000 inhabitants, possessing middle socio-economic characteristics (i.e., majority of white-collar workers, median family income equal to or exceeding the 1970 national median income of \$10,236 per family, and a median educational attainment for persons twenty-five years old and over equal to or exceeding the 1970 national median level of 12.2 school years); and, (3) location within a fifty-mile radius of New York City, New York.

While a number of communities met these criteria, access was most difficult. Lengthy discussions with the Superintendent of Schools and leaders of the local education association were necessary before entrance was gained in the district finally selected for this study. The outcomes of these discussions, particularly with leaders of the education association, resulted in procedural modifications affecting participants in the study, questionnaire distribution and collection and respondent profile data.

It was agreed to make the participation of educators as voluntary and anonymous as possible. Hence, no code numbering system, building check-off list or other such device was used. A respondent profile sheet was included though it was limited to the variables previously noted in the hypotheses. Consequently, follow-up contact to enhance response rate was extremely difficult. Also, it was not possible to differentiate between social studies teachers and non-social studies teachers. And, since the secondary school contained grades 7 to 12, seventh and eighth grade teachers were not included in this study due to their heightened visibility via the respondent profile sheet.

Because of the sophistication required by the questionnaire in terms of both reading level and frame of reference, only secondary school students were included in the study. Ninth and twelfth grade students were randomly selected by English classes and the questionnaire was administered in those classes during school time with provisions made to secure responses from those students who were absent on the day of administration.

Randomly selected from an attendance roster provided by the school administration, the parents of ninth and twelfth grade students were included in the study though no attempt was made to match students respondent with parent respondent. A code numbering system was used to facilitate parental response. Initial contact was by mail with subsequent mailings and direct telephone contact where possible.

The small size of the board of education -- seven members in all -- coupled with their role as a policy setting body made their inclusion in the study questionable. Their initial reluctance to complete an individual profile sheet led to its discard in the hopes of a greater response by members of that body. Materials were distributed initially through the Superintendent's office with subsequent mail and telephone contact.

The District

A suburban residential community situated in the north central part of New Jersey within a fifty-mile radius of New York City, "Linapto" contains virtually no manufacturing and is largely commuter oriented with at least 70% of its wage earners employed outside of the county in which Linapto is situated. The majority of those employed -- approximately 66% -- are engaged in white-collar occupations with approximately 25% engaged in blue-collar occupations and the remaining 9% working in service occupations.

With a population of nearly 25,000 (98.5% of which are white), Linapto, according to the 1970 census, enjoys a median family income of approximately \$12,500 and a mean family income in excess of \$13,500. In 1970, more than one-third of the families in Linapto reported an income in excess of \$15,000 and approximately 3% reported an income of less than \$4,000. The median educational attainment for persons 25-years old and over was 12.5 school years

completed with approximately two-thirds having completed four years of high school.

Linapto has a K-12 public school system with a population of approximately 4,000 pupils headed by an elected board of education consisting of seven members. Almost 90% of the school pupils of the community attend the public schools, with the remaining pupils securing their education in a local parochial school (K-8) and private schools outside the community. The secondary school enrollment averages approximately 300 students per class for grades 9-12. On the average, nearly three of every four students expresses an intention of continuing some form of post-high school education with approximately two-thirds entering two-and four-year collegiate institutions.

Results

Of all the groups participating in the study, a total of 515 (85%) responded, although only 455 (75%) actually completed the entire questionnaire. The disparity between responses and completed questionnaires is attributable to twenty-three respondents (4%) who refused to participate, twenty-two (4%) who incorrectly or incompletely responded, and fifteen (2%) who felt unable to respond. Table 1 contains the break-down of responses by group.

TABLE 1: RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE BY GROUP

Group	Total Samples	Total Response	Total Completed	Percentage Completed
Teachers	189	135	126	67%
Administrators	16	13	12	75%
Students	219	219	214	98%
Parents	177	137	99	56%
Board of Education	7	6	4	57%
Total	608	515	455	75%

Table 2 contains the means and standard deviations of both the "would" and "should" responses of the public school educators who completed the entire questionnaire.

TABLE 2:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ALL PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATORS

Response	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Would	138	61.28	10.82
Should	138	71.01	8.75

Table 3 indicates that a significant difference did exist in what educators perceived would occur in their school district and what they felt should occur in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction.

TABLE 3:
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ALL PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATORS

Source of Variation	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio
Between	1	6,544.70	6,544.70	67.56*
Within	274	26,543.15	96.87	
Total	275	33,087.85		

*Indicates significance as $p .01$

Table 4 contains the means and standard deviations for the various independent variables relating to the public school educators. (See Page 23) Table 5 shows a summary of the analysis of variance test for the several independent variables. (See Page 24)

The results of these tests confirmed the hypothesis that there would be a significant difference in what public school educators perceived would occur in the Linapto public schools and what they perceived should occur in those situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction.

For the other five variables, significant differences in perception did occur on the basis of position held in the school district, length of experience in education, chronological age, tenure and highest degree attained.

TABLE 4: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR
VARIOUS INDEPENDENT EDUCATOR VARIABLES

Group Variable	N	Would		Should	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Position					
Administrator	12	67.33	11.09	65.50	10.10
Elementary T.	62	59.24	10.88	71.85	8.28
Secondary T.	64	62.11	10.34	71.08	8.77
Experience					
1-3 Years	33	56.82	9.61	74.06	7.94
4-9 Years	38	61.03	10.77	72.66	8.61
10-20 Years	34	64.79	11.87	70.53	7.58
Over 20 Years	32	62.63	9.94	66.09	9.34
Age					
20-29 Years	50	58.26	9.87	73.70	8.01
30-39 Years	22	60.27	12.95	73.73	7.88
40-49 Years	25	62.44	8.55	66.36	9.03
Over 49 Years	40	64.95	11.25	68.80	8.61
Tenure					
Non-Tenured	56	58.45	10.28	72.52	8.28
Tenured	81	63.27	10.87	69.84	9.03
Degree					
Bachelor's	79	60.73	10.62	72.34	8.09
Master's	34	58.32	9.84	70.68	8.74
Master's + 30	24	67.38	11.10	66.67	10.06

TABLE 5: SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TESTS
FOR VARIOUS INDEPENDENT EDUCATOR VARIABLES

Group Variable	(Would) F Ratio	(Should) F Ratio
Position in District	3.27*	2.72
Length of Experience	3.37*	5.64*
Chronological Age	3.11*	6.01*
Tenure	6.81*	3.12
Degree Attained	5.48*	4.01*

*Indicates significance at $p < .05$

The results of these tests confirmed the hypothesis that there would be a significant difference in what educators perceived would occur and what they perceived should occur in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction. For each of the other five variables, significant differences in perception did occur on the basis of position in the school district, length of experience in education, chronological age, tenure and highest degree or training attained.

With respect to position in the school district, the hypothesis that administrators and secondary school teachers would perceive the school would act in a significantly more tolerant manner than elementary teachers was not confirmed. Results of the Scheffe post hoc procedure to test for significant contrasts revealed that while there was a significant perceptual difference between Administrators and Elementary

teachers as hypothesized, secondary teachers did not significantly differ from either with respect to what they perceived the school would do in these situations. No significant differences existed between administrators, elementary teachers and secondary teachers in their perceptions of what should occur in these situations.

While educators with from less than ten years of experience did perceive the school would act in a less tolerant manner in these situations than educators with more than ten years of experience, the differences were not statistically significant. Only educators with less than four years of experience differed significantly in their responses from educators with from ten to twenty years of experience, perceiving the school would act less tolerantly than the latter.

In perceptions of what the school should do in these situations, mean scores revealed the greater the amount of experience, the less tolerant the perception of what the school should do in these situations, and, conversely, the lesser the amount of experience, the more tolerant the perception of what the school should do. Results of Scheffe's test procedure revealed that educators with less than ten years of experience differed significantly in their perceptions from educators with more than twenty years of experience. Those with between ten and twenty years of experience did not differ significantly from either group.

On the basis of chronological age, the hypotheses were not all confirmed. While mean scores of what would occur in these

situations indicated the greater the age of the educator, the more tolerant his perception, this was not true of mean scores of what should occur. Results of the Scheffe test procedure revealed that educators less than thirty years old differed significantly in their perceptions of what the school would do in these situations from educators over forty-nine years of age but not with educators between forty and forty-nine or thirty and thirty-nine. The test results also indicated that educators less than forty years of age perceived the school should act in a significantly more tolerant manner than educators between forty and forty-nine years of age. Educators over forty-nine years of age did not differ significantly from other age groups in their perception of how the school should act in these situations.

On the basis of tenure, the hypotheses were confirmed. Educators with tenure perceived the school would act in a significantly more tolerant manner than did educators without tenure. No significant differences appeared in their perceptions of what the school should do in these situations.

For the most part, the hypotheses for the variable, highest degree or training attained, were affirmed. Educators with a Bachelor's Degree perceived the school would act in a significantly less tolerant but should act in a significantly more tolerant way than did educators with a Master's Degree plus thirty credit hours. But, while educators with a Master's Degree only did not significantly differ from either of the other two groups with respect to their perceptions of what the

school should do, they did perceive the school would be significantly less tolerant than did educators with a Master's Degree and thirty additional credit hours.

The second major set of hypotheses are concerned with a comparison of the perceptions of teachers and other significant school-related groups. Table 6 contains the means and standard deviations of the five significant school-related groups included in this study.

TABLE 6: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF
FIVE SIGNIFICANT SCHOOL-RELATED GROUPS

Group Variable	N	Would		Should	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Position					
Teacher	126	60.78	10.64	71.46	8.51
Administrator	12	67.33	11.09	65.50	10.10
Student	214	55.59	10.93	71.90	11.47
Parent	99	58.82	12.33	61.12	12.15
Board of Education	4	64.50	19.77	58.00	16.57
Age					
Under 20 Years	214	55.59	10.93	71.90	11.47
20-29 Years	50	58.26	9.87	73.70	8.01
30-39 Years	29	59.48	13.32	69.72	10.99
40-49 Years	72	60.24	10.69	64.65	10.88
Over 49 Years	84	61.93	12.38	63.82	11.76

Table 7 contains a summary of the analysis of variance tests for the two variables -- position in the community and chronological age. (See Page 28)

The hypothesis that students and teachers would differ significantly from parents and members of the board of education in their perceptions of what would occur in their schools was not confirmed. Though students did perceive the school as less

TABLE 7: SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TESTS
FOR SIGNIFICANT SCHOOL-RELATED GROUPS

Group Variable	(Would) F Ratio	(Should) F Ratio
Position	6.89*	19.64*
Age	5.79*	13.27*

*Indicates significance at p .05 level

tolerant than both parents and members of the board of education, the differences were not statistically significant. And, parents had a lower means score than did teachers for perceptions of what the school would do in these situations. The hypothesis was confirmed, however, for perceptions of what should occur in these situations for both students and teachers perceived the school should be significantly more tolerant than either parents or members of the board of education.

While administrators did differ significantly from students in their perceptions of what would occur in these situations, the hypothesis was confirmed for perceptions of what should occur. Administrators did not differ significantly in such perceptions from any of the other groups.

The hypotheses were confirmed for students and teachers. No significant differences occurred either in their perceptions of what the school would do or what the school should do in these situations.

For chronological age, mean scores indicated that the

greater the age of the respondent, the more tolerant his perceptions of what would occur in the school district. Results of the Scheffe post hoc test revealed that respondents under the age of twenty perceived the school would act in a significantly less tolerant manner than respondents over the age of thirty-nine. No other groups differences were significant. For perceptions of what should occur, mean scores revealed an opposite trend -- the greater the age of the respondent, the less tolerant his perception of what the school should do in these situations. The exception to this, however, was that the mean scores of respondents less than twenty years of age, while higher than respondents of thirty years of age or more, were not higher than those of respondents between twenty and twenty-nine years of age. The hypothesis was confirmed, however, in that respondents under the age of thirty perceived the school should act in a significantly more tolerant way than did respondents forty years old or more. Those respondents between the ages of thirty and thirty-nine did not differ significantly in their perceptions of what should occur in these situations from any other age group.

Discussion

The major hypothesis that there would be a significant difference in what public school educators perceived would occur and what they perceived should occur in situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction was confirmed.

Subsequent analysis revealed that teachers (both elementary and secondary) though not administrators perceived the school as being less open or tolerant than it should be. Such results support the observations of Beale (1941), Zeigler (1969) and, for the most part, Naylor (1973) that educators hold views or positions apart from those held by the school and are inhibited in the expression of such views. The disparity between "would" and "should" responses for situations involving aspects of nationalistic instruction indicates that the public school is not particularly hospitable to open inquiry in areas of nationalism and patriotism, certainly not as hospitable as teachers perceive it should be.

Studies dealing with the school and the treatment of controversial issues have suggested that teachers are reluctant to deal with controversy. Not only might this be attributable to an inability to recognize the debatable nature of the "truths" teachers propound, but these studies, such as those of Lunstrum (1964) and McAulay (1969), suggested that such reluctance is due to: (1) a prevalent belief among both the general public and educators themselves that the school should function as a transmission agency reinforcing the status quo; (2) uncertainty, confusion and feelings of inadequacy on the part of educators in dealing with controversial issues; and (3) the threat of sanctions from inside or outside the school.

The findings of this study lend support to such studies, particularly with respect to the fear of sanctions, whether real or perceived. Teachers do perceive the school to be more

restrictive than it should be. If, indeed, one's perception of reality is more important than reality itself as sociologist W.I. Thomas suggested in his statement, "if men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (in Merton, 1968, p. 475), then one would expect to find the school reflecting more of a closed than an open inquiry approach, at least in the area of nationalistic instruction. That is, one would expect to find the school reflecting more of the "would" perceptions rather than the "should" perceptions with teachers acting accordingly.

Since teachers are the keys to implementation of any curriculum in the classroom, their perceptions of the school climate as less hospitable than administrators is of importance. This appears to be particularly significant at the elementary level. Consequently, curricula, such as that of "the new social studies" which seek a more critical examination of society, must face the reluctance of teachers to entertain a critical examination of the status quo in their classrooms, at least as it affects aspects of nationalistic education.

The findings with respect to experience in education are also instructive. It appears that educators with less experience are more likely to perceive the school would be less open and should be more open than educators with more experience. Non-tenured teachers perceived the school as significantly less open than tenured teachers though they did not differ significantly in their perception of what the school should do. These suggest some support for Willard Waller's

observation as to the effects of the school environment on public school educators.

When the teacher has internalized the rules which bind him, he has become truly a teacher....When conformity is the most natural thing for him, and he conforms without thought, the teacher is free, for freedom is only an optical illusion that results from our inability to see the restrictions that surround us. (Waller, 1967, p. 420)

The results with respect to the age of educators is also instructive. Younger educators perceive the school as being less open but should be more open than older educators. Since younger educators are most likely to be those who are familiar with and receptive to curricula based on "the new social studies," their perceptions of the school environment are of importance. And, since older educators are most likely to be in positions of power and/or influence in the public schools, their perceptions of what the school environment is and what it should be is noteworthy, particularly since they will most likely play significant roles as decisions are made with respect to curriculum in a school district.

Data with respect to the various school-related groups is also of value. For both administrators and members of the board of education -- two groups which play major roles in setting rules and policies directly affecting the school curriculum -- the mean scores for perceptions of what should occur in these situations are lower than their perceptions of what would occur. And, the findings that teachers and students perceive the school should be significantly more tolerant than parents or members of the board of education is also of value. The fears of teachers

to engage in more open inquiry, particularly in an area as basic to the social studies as citizenship education, appear not to be without foundation, for the data suggests probable opposition to such attempts by three significant school-related groups -- administrators, board of education and parents.

This study has attempted to provide further insight into the perceptions of public school educators in terms of what they perceive the schools are and what they perceive the schools should be, particularly as those perceptions relate to inquiry in areas involving nationalistic instruction. If, as Donald Oliver and James Shaver have contended, students are to be "allowed wide latitude in developing their own standards and tastes -- i.e., their own definitions of human dignity" rather than be forced to accept "some agreed-upon substantive definition of right" (Oliver and Shaver, 1966, p. 13), they must be able to freely inquire into topics and situations as basic as those of nationalism and patriotism. However, the findings of this study suggest some of the obstacles that confront attempts to implement ^{such} a curriculum based on "the new social studies." For if aspects of nationalistic instruction remain closed areas, if "the new social studies" is unable to engage in open, critical inquiry in areas so fundamental to social studies education, then much of the theories, goals, methodology and materials of "the new social studies" are reduced to mere rhetoric with little substance, and the prevalence of traditional nationalistic instruction will remain, continuing the paradox of the existence of closed areas within a "free" society.

REFERENCES

- Beale, Howard K., Are American Teachers Free?, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XII (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936).
- _____, A History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XVI (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941).
- Billington, Ray Allen, The Historian's Contribution to Anglo-American Misunderstanding: Report of A Committee on National Bias in Anglo-American History Textbooks (New York: Hobbs, Dorman and Company, 1966).
- Bragdon, Henry Wilkinson, "Dilemmas of a Textbook Writer," Social Education, 33 (March, 1969), 292-98.
- Brubaker, Dale L. Alternative Directions for the Social Studies (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1967).
- Brudney, Victor, "Legislative Regulation of the Social Studies in Secondary Schools," in M.M. Chambers (ed.), The Ninth Yearbook of School Law, 1941 (Washington: American Council on Education, 1941).
- Cleary, Robert E., Political Education in the American Democracy (Scranton, Pennsylvania: Intext Educational Publishers, 1971).
- Cox, C. Benjamin and Massialas, Byron G. (eds.), Social Studies in the United States: A Critical Appraisal (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1967).
- Easton, David and Dennis, Jack, Children in the Political System (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969).
- England, J. Merton, "The Democratic Faith in American School-books, 1783-1860," American Quarterly, (Summer, 1963), 191-99.
- Engle, Shirley H., "Decision-Making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction," in Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias (eds.), Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964).
- Flanders, Jesse Knowlton, Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 195 (New York: Teachers College Press, 1925).

Gellerman, William, The American Legion as Educator (New York: Teachers College Press, 1938).

Greenstein, Fred I., Children and Politics, Revised edition (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1969).

Hess, Robert D., and Torney, Judith V., The Development of Political Attitudes in Children (Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1968).

Horton, Roy E., Jr., "American Freedom and the Values of Youth," in H.H. Remmers (ed.), Anti-Democratic Attitudes in American Schools (Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1963).

Hunt, Maurice P. and Metcalf, Lawrence E., Teaching High School Social Studies, Second edition (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968).

Krug, Mark M., "Safe Textbooks and Citizenship Education," The School Review, 68 (Winter, 1960), 463-80.

Jennings, M. Kent and Niemi, Richard G., "The Transmission of Political Values from Parent to Child," American Political Science Review, 62 (March, 1968), 169-84.

Lehman, Douglas A., Legislative Control of the Secondary School Curriculum from 1941 to 1953 (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1955).

Lewenstein, Morris Robert, An Analysis of Some Concepts of Citizenship Education (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1953).

Lunstrum, John P., "School Policy and Controversial Issues," in Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias (eds.), Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964).

Massialas, Byron G. and Cox, C. Benjamin, Inquiry in Social Studies (New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1966).

McAulay, J.D., "Controversial Issues in the Social Studies," in Wayne L. Herman, Jr. (ed.), Current Research in Elementary School Social Studies (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969).

Naylor, David T., "A Study of the Perceptions of New Jersey Educators Regarding Nationalistic Instruction," Theory and Research in Social Education, 1 (October, 1973), 59-73.

Nelson, Jack L., "Nationalism and Education," Buffalo Studies, IV (April, 1968), 113-32.

_____, "Nationalistic Social Science Education: A Re-definition," Unpublished paper presented at the National Council for the Social Studies College and University Session (November, 1969), 1-16.

Nelson, Jack and Roberts, Gene, Jr., The Censors and the Schools (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1963).

Noah, Harold J., Prince, Carl E. and Riggs, C. Russell, "History in High School Textbooks," The School Review, 70 (Winter, 1962), 415-36.

Oliver, Donald W. and Shaver, James P., Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966).

Pierce, Bessie Louise, Civic Attitudes in American School Textbooks (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1930).

_____, Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part III (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933).

_____, Public Opinion and the Teaching of History in the United States (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1926).

Plischke, John R., Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum from 1941 to 1950 (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1953).

Radz, Michael A. and Risinger, C. Frederick, "A Revolution Comes of Age: Social Studies Curriculum Development in the Seventies," Social Science Education Consortium Newsletter, 10 (May, 1971).

Raup, Bruce, Education and Organized Interests in America (New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1936).

Sadler, James Allen, Legislative Determination of the Public Secondary School Curriculum in the United States (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Mississippi, 1968).

Sinclair, Upton, The Goolings: A Study of the American Schools (Pasadena, California: Upton Sinclair, 1924).